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To Hangover or Not: Trajectories of Job Satisfaction in Adolescent Workforce Newcomers

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Abstract

The development of job satisfaction during the first months on the job often indicates a *honeymoon hangover*, with high levels of job satisfaction gradually declining. This effect is often explained by disappointed expectations that are informed by previous job experiences. However, research has not established whether a hangover pattern could also be observed in individuals without previous work experience. We explored the development of job satisfaction with four assessment points across the first four months after starting vocational training among 357 Swiss adolescents. On average, a hangover pattern in job satisfaction was confirmed. Using person-centred growth mixture modelling, we identified two groups with distinct trajectories. Although a majority showed a hangover pattern, a third of participants showed stable, high job satisfaction. We presumed that adolescents with more contextual and personal resources (i.e., perceived social support, occupational self-efficacy, core self-evaluations, and perceived person–job fit) would be more likely to avoid a hangover pattern. Results confirmed that the two groups differed significantly in all these resources with the high stable satisfaction group showing higher resources. The results illustrate the importance of a diverse set of resources to facilitate a positive trajectory of job satisfaction at the beginning of work life.

Keywords: job satisfaction, newcomer socialization, growth mixture model, vocational training, social cognitive career theory; conservation of resources

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After entering a new position, employees generally show a trend of steady decline in job satisfaction (e.g.; Boswell, Boudreau, & Tichy, 2005; Vandenberghe, Panaccio, Bentein, Mignonac, & Roussel, 2011). This phenomenon is referred to as the hangover effect (Boswell et al., 2005) and is of relevance for organizations because both the level (Bowling, Khazon, Meyer, & Burrus, 2015; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000) and the change in job satisfaction (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, & Van Der Velde, 2013; Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011) are important for the prediction of work-related outcomes, such as job performance, turnover, and work expectations.

One prominent explanation for the emergence of the hangover effect is the contrast experienced between a new job and a previous job (Boswell, Shipp, Payne, & Culbertson, 2009; Solinger, van Olffen, Roe, & Hofmans, 2013). According to this argument, individuals search for and start a new job because they were not satisfied with their previous job. The comparison of the new job with the previous one should lead to a contrast effect, and hence heightened job satisfaction at the start of the new job (Boswell et al., 2009; Chadi & Hetschko, 2014). As the novelty of the situation wears off, a gradual decline in job satisfaction sets in. However, to what extent a hangover might also occur among workers without any significant prior working experience and which mechanisms could explain a hangover under such circumstances remains unaddressed.

Moreover, the hangover effect has been presented by previous research as a general phenomenon that applies to all or most individuals (e.g., Boswell et al., 2005). However, it is reasonable to presume that not all employees experience such a hangover effect, but that there may be distinct groups of individuals who experience different trajectories of job satisfaction. A hangover may not be present at all, and some individuals may experience the opposite of a hangover and show increasing job satisfaction across time. Person-centred analyses, such as latent group procedures, help look beyond general trends, in contrast to variable-centred analyses that focus on the average trajectory in a sample (Laursen & Hoff, 2006). Applied to job satisfaction, such procedures allow for the discovery of subgroups of people who diverge in their development of job satisfaction across time. Such specific groups may be small and would thus remain undetected when analysing data with more common variable-centred methods. Nevertheless, distinct subgroups may be important for theory-building (Wang & Hanges, 2011) because they can extend knowledge on the boundary conditions of general trends. In addition, practitioners may gain insight into how to target interventions to the specific experiences and needs of distinct groups of individuals. Despite these advantages, there is still a lack of research that investigates the development of job attitudes using a person-centred approach (Mäkikangas, Kinunen, Feld, & Schaufeli, 2016).

In this study, we investigated developmental patterns of job satisfaction among a sample of adolescents starting vocational training, and thus experiencing their first profound contact with work life. As such, we are able to address several shortcomings of the existing literature. First, studying whether young individuals without significant previous work experience also experience a job satisfaction hangover upon entering their first job allows for testing whether the contrast between a previous and a current job is a necessary condition for experiencing a job satisfaction hangover. We thus evaluate the core proposition of this

explanation for a job satisfaction hangover and investigate whether the general hangover pattern described among adult job newcomers (e.g., Boswell et al., 2005; Boswell et al., 2009) can be replicated among adolescents with no substantial previous work experience.

Second, we aim to explore whether there are different subgroups regarding the levels and developmental patterns of job satisfaction. Our study thus provides a more differentiated view of the phenomenon of job satisfaction hangover by exploring different trajectories of job satisfaction in the first months after starting a new job.

Third, based on the social cognitive career theory model of job satisfaction (SCCT; Lent & Brown, 2006) and conservation of resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveau, & Westman, 2018), we explore how a set of contextual and personal resources act as predictors of job satisfaction trajectories among workers without any considerable prior work experience. Our approach to study change in job attitudes among job newcomers is in line with an interactionist view of newcomer socialization, as a process shaped by both the newcomer and the context, including their interaction (Griffin, Collela, & Goparaju, 2000; Gruman, Saks, & Weiz, 2006). We also integrate socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012, 2018), suggesting that the resources a newcomer possesses when entering a new job and receives from the employer upon organizational entry will predict successful socialization and thus facilitate high levels of socialization outcomes like job satisfaction. Specifically, we examined the roles of supervisor and coworker social support, occupational self-efficacy, core self-evaluations (CSE), and perceived person–job fit. Occupational self-efficacy and CSE can be seen as person-specific resources, social support as a resource mainly offered by the organization; and person-job fit as a resource originating from the interaction between the newcomer and the encountered environment. Based on COR theory (Hobfoll et al. 2018) and socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012, 2018), we expect that these contextual and personal resources prevent a decline in newcomers' job satisfaction because they help to protect against the resource loss typically occurring during the first few months in a new job. We thereby contribute to a better understanding of different resources as antecedents of different job satisfaction trajectories, which can offer insight into how to facilitate the positive development of newcomers' job satisfaction.

Development of Job Satisfaction Among Newcomers

Adjustment to a new work role denotes the process by which employees and organizations get acquainted with each other, and whereby the individual is introduced to his or her role as a fully performing employee. An often-studied indicator of workplace adjustment is the degree of satisfaction an individual obtains from his or her job (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; T. N. Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). Generally, organizational newcomers experience a declining trajectory of job satisfaction during the months ensuing their entry into a new position (Boswell et al., 2005; Boswell et al., 2009; Chadi & Hetschko, 2014). A prominent rationale that is offered for this job satisfaction hangover is that one or more areas of dissatisfaction with a previous job may have led the individual to take on a new position (Boswell et al., 2005; Chadi & Hetschko, 2014). After changing the job, the individual would perceive a pronounced positive contrast between the previous and the new job (the so-called honeymoon). However, when a more complete evaluation of the new job (including its own dissatisfying aspects) sets in, job satisfaction will gradually decline. This implies that for individuals who have changed their job involuntarily,

a hangover effect in job satisfaction may thus be smaller, or not present at all. In support, Chadi and Hetschko (2014) studied individuals who had changed their job involuntarily because of a plant closure and did not find a hangover pattern. However, Boswell and colleagues' (2009) study could not find differences in the trajectory of job satisfaction between newcomers with voluntary or involuntarily job change. To what extent a hangover pattern depends on previous work experience is hence unclear.

In our study, we address this issue by examining a sample of adolescents who enter the workforce from an educational context at a comparatively young age. This group hence represents one of the purest conditions for the study of the hangover effect without the influence of previous work experiences. By contrast, extant research has mainly studied job satisfaction hangover with adult job newcomers transitioning from one job to another.

Even with little or no previous work experience, we presume that a hangover pattern in job satisfaction is still likely to occur. Entering work life is a stressful situation and can represent a threat to existing resources, such as sense of competence, comfort, energy, or positive affect (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Indeed, several stressful life events co-occur during the school to work transition, such as ending school, changing to a different line of work, change in responsibilities at work, or change in work hours and work conditions (Holmes & Rahe, 1967). Other specific challenges encountered by workforce newcomers, which could put strain on their resources, may be mastering new skills and tasks, adapting to a full-time work schedule after being used to school, and learning to cooperate with supervisors and coworkers. Due to the strain the transition poses on resources, we expect that, on average, also adolescent job newcomers without previous work experience will show a trajectory of declining job satisfaction over time, same as has been found with experienced adult job newcomers after transferring from one job to another.

Hypothesis 1: Job satisfaction among adolescents starting vocational training shows an overall decline across the first months at work.

Different Trajectories of Job Satisfaction Among Newcomers

Research on organizational commitment has concluded that different groups of individuals experience different developmental patterns of organizational commitment upon entering a new job (Gomes Maia, Bittencourt Basost, & Solinger, 2016; Solinger et al., 2013). To our knowledge, however, there is no published research to date that has explored different trajectories of job satisfaction in job newcomers using a person-centred approach. This is surprising, considering that job satisfaction has been such an extensively studied variable in organizational research. We propose that, beyond the general trend of declining job satisfaction that was repeatedly reported (e.g., Boswell et al., 2009), two additional patterns seem possible.

First, an increasing trajectory of job satisfaction across time is a plausible trajectory for a part of the job newcomer population. Newcomers may experience that their job is very well-fitting to their expectations, and that they might receive considerable resources from their organization that facilitates socialization into the new job (Saks & Gruman, 2012, 2018). They may also possess considerable personal resources (e.g., confidence) that help dealing with job demands (Saks & Gruman, 2012, 2018). Based on COR theory (Hobfoll et al. 2018), existing resources can also promote the accumulation of further resources, leading to resource gain spirals. For these individuals, the newcomer situation may thus not deplete their resources and may even mean accumulating resources when compared to the situation before starting to work.

Newcomers may moreover gradually adopt the goals, rules, and culture of the organization (Solinger et al., 2013). Following this logic, a newcomer could gradually perceive his or her job as better-fitting and experience increasing capacity to master challenges at work, leading to an increasingly positive overall evaluation of the job, reflected in increasing levels of job satisfaction.

Second, job newcomers might experience stable job satisfaction across time. Such a trajectory would further be consistent with the proposition that both employees and organizations try to select employers and employees, respectively, who show a good fit regarding their respective goals and values (Kristof, 1996; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). The experience of disentchantment may thus be unlikely for a portion of the newcomers, and job satisfaction may stay at constant levels across time. These individuals may furthermore also be protected against resource loss and decreasing job satisfaction by being able to draw on contextual and personal resources that help dealing with threats to resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Based on these arguments, we can thus expect that job newcomers can show one of three types of job satisfaction trajectories: a declining, an increasing, and a stable trajectory. This is similar to the Honeymoon Hangover, Learning to Love, and Matching scenarios which Solinger et al. (2013) expected to find in their longitudinal assessment of organizational commitment:

> *Hypothesis 2: There will be at least three groups of adolescents with differing trajectories of job satisfaction, showing an increasing, a stable, or a declining trajectory.*

For these three general trends, it is possible that each might exist on different levels (e.g., low stable vs. high stable job satisfaction), or show different rates of change (e.g., slowly declining vs. rapidly declining job satisfaction). Our chosen data analytic approach of growth mixture modelling allows for us to detect such differences, if they exist. However, for our theorizing, we focus only on the general trends.

Antecedents of Different Developmental Trajectories of Job Satisfaction

The development of work experiences among job newcomers is often studied within the newcomer socialization framework (e.g., Saks & Ashforth, 1997b). This framework has provided valuable insights into newcomers' first months in their new jobs and how their job satisfaction develops over time. The socialization framework mainly centres on organizational practices affecting socialization. However, socialization scholarship also brought forward accounts which employ a more agentic view of the newcomer as well as a focus on the interaction of resources from the individual with the resources provided by the organization (e.g.; Gruman, Saks, & Zweig, 2006; Jokisaari, 2013; Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Rubenstein, & Song, 2013). Our study aligns with this more recent, comprehensive perspective, as we study resources that originate in the individual, the organizational context, and the interaction between the organization and the newcomer.

In an extension of most socialization framework research, we study the development of job satisfaction from the very start in a new job and over the first few months in the new job, as is frequently done in job satisfaction hangover research. This is in contrast to most research focusing on organizational practices in employee socialization that investigates changes in job attitudes over longer periods of time and with longer intervals between assessments (e.g., T. N. Bauer et al., 2007). However, previous research found that job satisfaction among

newcomers may change within very short time frames (e.g.; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005).

Socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012, 2018) proposes that existing contextual and personal resources favour successful newcomer adjustment. Conversely, low levels of resources place strain on other resources, and individuals with low resources are more vulnerable to resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018). As such, we propose that high initial levels in personal and contextual resources should be related to increasing, or at least more stable, levels in job satisfaction across time, due to resource gain spirals and protection against resource loss over time. Conversely, lower initial levels in resources may be related to declining job satisfaction across time, due to further resource loss.

To examine which specific personal and contextual resources might explain why adolescents show different job satisfaction trajectories, we draw on the SCCT model of job satisfaction (Lent & Brown, 2006). This framework proposes that an interplay of external (e.g., organizational) and internal variables affect the development of job satisfaction. More specifically, SCCT suggests that job satisfaction is affected by (1) environmental supports, resources, and obstacles, (2) self-efficacy beliefs, (3) personality and affective traits, and (4) work conditions and outcomes. Based on this, we studied the following resources: (a) supervisor and coworker social support as environmental supports and resources; (b) occupational self-efficacy; (c) core self-evaluations as a personality variable, and (d) perceived person–job fit as an indicator of perceived working conditions. We believe that SCCT is a particularly valuable framework for the study of job satisfaction hangover among very young job newcomers in the first months on the job. This is because personal factors and more proximal work experiences (e.g., social support at work) that are stressed in the SCCT framework might be especially influential among young individuals (Bui, 2017; Zacher, Jimmieson, & Bordia, 2014).

Social support. Interpersonal interactions in the workplace have been found as one of the main drivers of newcomer socialization (Jokisaaari, 2013; Korte, 2009). There is further considerable evidence that social support in the workplace is related to higher job satisfaction (Cheng, Mauno, & Lee, 2014; Ng & Sorensen, 2008). This may be especially the case for young, inexperienced newcomers, who are more dependent on introduction and guidance by others. For example, when encountering problems with a specific task, a supporting supervisor may give instructions on how to manage this task, overcome problems, and subsequently learn from the experience. Coworkers may also offer instrumental help because they might be more experienced on the job and can also be an important source of emotional support. Supervisor and coworker social support can thus prevent or mitigate frustrating experiences on the job (Ng & Sorensen, 2008). In addition, social support is instrumental in directly reducing work-related stressors and weakens the perception of strain (e.g., Halbesleben, 2006; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). Finally, a pleasurable, supportive social environment is positively valued in itself and should thus have a direct effect on job satisfaction (Ng & Sorensen, 2008). The beneficial effects social support has on social integration, well-being, learning, and the experience of competence of newcomers could lead to positive resource accumulation and prevent job satisfaction from decreasing and may even lead to increasing job satisfaction over time. Conversely, individuals experiencing less social support could experience further resource loss, and thus decreasing job satisfaction over time.

Hypothesis 3: Groups showing stable or increasing trajectories of job satisfaction will be characterized by higher levels in perceived (a) supervisor and (b) coworker social support compared to adolescents with a declining job satisfaction trajectory.

Occupational self-efficacy. Occupational self-efficacy reflects an individuals' conviction that work-related tasks can be successfully fulfilled (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008). Being convinced that one will be able to overcome challenges helps avoid insecurity and rumination when faced with difficulties, and to concentrate on the tasks and challenges at hand. Thanks to this, individuals can make the best use of their attention, capabilities, and resources, leading to resource accumulation and more positive outcomes, such as increased job satisfaction. As newcomers with high occupational self-efficacy are better positioned to face the challenges posed by work, they may be capable of deriving more personal value and meaning from work. This should prevent individuals from experiencing decreasing job satisfaction across time and may even favour increasing job satisfaction. Empirically, the positive relation between self-efficacy and job satisfaction has been confirmed in meta-analytic research (e.g.; Judge & Bono, 2001) and longitudinally among young individuals starting their careers (Pinquart, Juang, & Silbereisen, 2003).

Hypothesis 4: Groups showing stable or increasing trajectories of job satisfaction will be characterized by higher levels in occupational self-efficacy compared to adolescents with a declining job satisfaction trajectory.

Core self-evaluations. CSE refer to the "basic, fundamental appraisal of one's worthiness, effectiveness, and capability as a person" (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen., 2003, p. 304). More favourable CSE go along with an approach motivation mindset that renders positive stimuli more salient, and thus facilitates more favourable evaluations in the workplace (Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012). As such, CSE could promote resource accumulation over time. Empirical studies have shown that positive self-views enhance the capability to enjoy positive experiences and to deduce more positive self-related thoughts and affect from such experiences (Judge & Hurst, 2007; Wood, Heimpel, Newby-Clark, & Ross, 2005). In sum, individuals with high CSE should be better able to capitalize on positive experiences at work, which then leads to the maintenance or even an increase in job satisfaction over time. This notion is in line with research findings reporting that initial levels in CSE are related to steeper increases in employees' job satisfaction (Judge & Hurst, 2008; Wu & Griffin, 2012).

Hypothesis 5: Groups showing stable or increasing trajectories of job satisfaction will be characterized by higher levels in CSE compared to adolescents with a declining job satisfaction trajectory.

Person–job fit. Perceived *person–job fit* represents a positive assessment of work conditions and outcomes because it refers to an individual's perception that his or her job is in line with his or her knowledge and abilities, aspirations, and needs (Saks & Ashforth, 2002). Meta-analytic research confirmed a significant, positive relation to job satisfaction (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Oh et al., 2014). A job that is perceived as well-fitting, congruent to values, and satisfying of personal needs can induce positive affect at work, and thus increase job satisfaction (Kristof, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). If newcomers experience high person–job fit upon job entry, they might capitalize better on opportunities for growth and learning, and thus experience resource growth over time, and stable or even

increasing job satisfaction (Lanivich, Brees, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2010). On the contrary, newcomers who experience low person–job fit after job entry might have had unrealistic expectations regarding their jobs. Ensuing low perceptions of person–job fit should lead to feelings of disenchantment, which may lead to resource loss and thus lower levels of job satisfaction, and to a decline in job satisfaction over time.

> *Hypothesis 6:* Groups showing stable or increasing trajectories of job satisfaction will be characterized by higher levels in perceived person–job fit compared to adolescents with a declining job satisfaction trajectory.

Study Context

We conducted our study in Switzerland, where 70% of students end compulsory school after nine years and start one of over 200 different Vocational Education and Training (VET) programs for a specific profession (Federal Office for Professional Education and Technology, 2018). During the next three to four years, they work as apprentices in an organization and go to school one or two days per week. The adolescents are thus employees in training and are expected by their employers to contribute to organizational goals and perform to the best of their knowledge and ability. They also earn a modest salary.

We assessed participants' job satisfaction four times over the first four months after starting their first year in VET. We chose this early time period because research has shown that the greatest dynamics in job satisfaction happen in the first few months of the newcomer experience (e.g., Boswell et al., 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). These fast dynamics may even be exacerbated among young individuals with little job experience because they show lower stability in job satisfaction when compared to older employees (Bal et al., 2013; Mäkikangas et al., 2016). Moreover, research has shown that job satisfaction can fluctuate meaningfully over weeks (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005) and even days (e.g., Zacher, 2015), which supports the usefulness of investigating shorter time intervals.

Method

Participants and Procedure

We contacted seven VET schools in the German-speaking part of Switzerland. We assessed participants' job satisfaction in the second week after starting their training and over the next four consecutive months. We surveyed participants on four occasions, to be able to model nonlinear trajectories (Ployhart & Ward, 2011). School principals organized the first data collection. Participation was voluntary. The students filled in a paper-and-pencil questionnaire under supervision of their teachers, resulting in 507 participants. After four weeks, the same classes participated again in a survey with a 94% response rate and 476 participants. On this occasion, we also asked participants whether they would be willing to participate in two additional surveys and to indicate their email address and mobile phone number: 339 (71%) participants did so and were invited by email and text message to participate in an online survey for a third and fourth measurement wave, each six weeks apart. The slightly uneven spacing of measurement points was chosen to accommodate vocational school holidays and was accounted for in the data analysis (e.g., Wickrama, Lee, O'Neil, & Lorenz, 2016). As an incentive, participants could participate in a lottery of gift vouchers with a value of approximately 75 USD at the third and fourth assessment. Job satisfaction was assessed at each wave, occupational self-efficacy and person–job fit at the first measurement

time, and supervisor and coworker social support and core self-evaluations at the second measurement time.

For the final sample, we kept only participants for which we had data for at least two data points. Due to survey distribution errors that occurred in some classes (one school chose to extend the interval between T1 and T2 to eight weeks, and in some instances, teachers distributed T2 surveys at T1 by mistake), the sample size diminished to $N = 377$. We further excluded participants who had indicated that they had interrupted their apprenticeship or changed employer ($n = 9$), or because their Mahalanobis distance for job satisfaction values for T1 through T4 had a p-value below $p < .001$ ($n = 11$), and thus indicated an outlier (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2013). After the described data cleansing, 357 data points were available for T1, 326 for T2, 165 for T3, and 125 for T4. Using missing data estimation (see analytical procedure), the final sample size used in the analyses was $N = 357$.

Participants were, on average, 16.60 years old ($SD = 1.37$), and 86% were female ($n = 306$). The predominance of female participants may have been due to an over-representation of VET programs with a large proportion of female students. Participants were training to become dental assistants ($n = 92$, 26%), medical assistants ($n = 85$, 24%), bakers and confectioners ($n = 57$, 16%), salespersons ($n = 42$, 12%), hairdressers ($n = 39$, 11%), cooks ($n = 25$, 7%), druggists ($n = 11$, 3%), and waiters ($n = 6$, 2%).

Measures

Mean score values, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations of all study variables are presented in Table 1. We translated the job satisfaction and social support scales independently into German. We then agreed upon a final version for each item in a reconciliation meeting. This procedure is particularly useful for ensuring the naturalness, connotation, and comprehensibility of items, which are often compromised by employing a more formalized translation-back-translation approach (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was assessed with the three-item job satisfaction scale (e.g., "Overall, I am satisfied with my job") used by Rafferty and Griffin (2006). Participants answered on a scale ranging from 1 (*don't agree at all*) to 7 (*fully agree*).

Perceived social support. We assessed *perceived supervisor support* (e.g., "My supervisor really cares about my well-being") taking the eight items selected from the survey of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) by Eisenberger and colleagues (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). Participants rated the items on a scale from 1 (*fully disagree*) to 5 (*fully agree*). For the assessment of perceived *coworker social support*, we used the six-item scale (e.g., "My coworkers really care about my well-being") by Mossholder, Settoon, and Henagan (2005), which the participants rated from 1 (*fully disagree*) to 5 (*fully agree*).

Occupational self-efficacy. We assessed occupational self-efficacy with the German version of the six-item scale (e.g., "I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.") by Rigotti and colleagues (Rigotti et al., 2008). Participants rated these items on a scale from 1 (*not at all true)* to 6 (*completely true*).

Core self-evaluations. We assessed core self-evaluations with a German version (Stumpp, Muck, Hülsheger, Judge, & Maier, 2010) of Judge and colleagues' (Judge et al., 2003) 12-item scale (e.g., "Overall, I am satisfied with myself"). Participants rated the items with a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Person–job fit. We used a German version (Hirschi, 2012) of the four-item person–job fit scale (e.g., "To what extent do your knowledge, skills, and abilities match the requirements of the job?") by Saks and Ashforth (2002). Participants rated the items on a scale from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very large extent*).

Analytical Procedure

We used SPSS 24 for data cleansing, the evaluation of descriptive statistics, and preliminary analyses. For all consequent analyses, we used MPlus 7. To assess change in job satisfaction over time, we first confirmed the measure's longitudinal invariance (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). To confirm that the resources perceived supervisor and coworker social support, occupational self-efficacy, CSE, and person–job fit are empirically distinct, we tested the measurement model by assessing a confirmatory factor analysis for the intercorrelated latent variables of the five constructs, each represented by its respective items. Thereafter, we performed a latent growth model for job satisfaction across time to assess the general trend in the development of job satisfaction in our sample. In a next step, we conducted growth mixture modelling to assess the number of distinct latent trajectory groups in job satisfaction and used the BCH-procedure in MPlus (e.g., Bakk & Vermunt, 2016) to evaluate the level of the resources variables among the participants of the different growth patterns. For all procedures in MPlus, we used the MLR estimator with robust standard errors and estimated missing data using the full information maximum likelihood (FIML) method. The FIML procedure avoids the biasing effects of missing data that would result from listwise deletion and yields accurate estimates even for relatively large amounts of missing data (Graham, 2009).

When assessing longitudinal invariance, measurement models, and the latent growth model, we used the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Values near and above .95 for CFI and TLI, around .06 for RMSEA and .08 for SRMR, designate a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). We compared nested models using the Satorra-Bentler corrected chi-square values (Satorra & Bentler, 2001).

When performing growth mixture modelling, we took a stepwise approach, evaluating different solutions with increasing numbers of latent trajectory groups using goodness-of-fit indices (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthen, 2007). The Sample Adjusted Bayesian Information Criterion (SABIC) and the Bootstrap Likelihood Ratio Test (BLRT) are generally proposed as the most accurate indicators for evaluating the number of distinct latent trajectories (e.g., Nylund et al., 2007). The most likely profile enumeration should show the lowest SABIC. A BLRT with a non-significant *p*-value (> .05) for a solution with *k*+1 profiles indicates that the last added profile does not improve the explanation of the data, and the *k*-profile solution should be selected. Both indicators have been reported to have a tendency to overestimate the number of groups (Morin & Marsh, 2015). This may especially be the case with non-normally distributed data (D. J. Bauer & Curran, 2003; Muthen & Asparouhov, 2015), as in our left-skewed distributions for job satisfaction (see Table 1 for means and standard deviations). For mixture modelling with skewed variables, the adjusted Lo-Mendel-Rubin test (adjusted LMR-

test) seems to provide a better evaluation of the correct number of groups (Morgan, Hodge, & Baggett, 2016). Other fit indices that are consulted in mixture modelling are the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) and the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), which should be as low as possible, and entropy, which is an overall measure of classification accuracy of the extracted groups that would theoretically equal 1 when all cases are accurately classified into their respective latent group and should thus be as high as possible (Nylund et al., 2007). Guidance for deciding on the accurate number of growth mixture model patterns can further be given by the visual inspection of elbow plots depicting AIC, BIC, and SABIC values for different solutions (Morin & Marsh, 2015) Importantly, the mixture modelling solutions should also always be evaluated regarding their theoretical meaningfulness, which gives flexibility beyond a rigid choice of a profile solution merely based on fit indices.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Sample attrition. We compared the mean values in job satisfaction at T1 and T2, perceived supervisor support and coworker support (T2), occupational self-efficacy (T1), CSE (T2), and person–job fit (T1) of participants who only participated at T1 and T2 (n = 182) with the respective mean values for participants who participated in at least one additional online data collection at T3 and/or T4 (n = 175) using independent samples t-tests. We found no significant differences, suggesting that sample attrition may be unrelated to the study variables.

Longitudinal invariance of job satisfaction. We first checked for configural longitudinal invariance (χ^2 = 56.11, df = 30, p < .01, CFI = .98, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .06), then metric (or factor loading) longitudinal invariance (χ^2 = 59.97 df = 36, p < .01, CFI = .98, TLI = .96, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .08; $\Delta\chi^2$ = 4.88, df = 6, p = .56), and finally scalar (or intercept) longitudinal invariance, comparing the nested models with more restrictions to the previously tested model using chi-square comparison tests. The job satisfaction measure showed scalar longitudinal invariance (χ^2 = 70.90 df = 42, p < .01, CFI = .98, TLI = .96, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .09; $\Delta\chi^2$ = 11.16, df = 6, p = .08), confirming the suitability to proceed with longitudinal change analyses.

Measurement model. We intercorrelated four items that were negatively worded (two in the supervisor social support and two in the coworker social support scale) to account for wording-specific shared variance. We did the same for the CSE measure by intercorrelating the six positively and the six negatively worded items. This so-called correlated uniqueness method accounts for wording-specific variance and leads to better-fitting model results (Marsh, Scalas, & Nagengast, 2010; Whiteside-Mansell & Corwyn, 2003). For the overall measurement model of the resources variables, we obtained an acceptable model fit (χ^2 = 813.31 df = 547, p < .001, CFI = .93, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .06), confirming the empirical distinctness of the resources. This model also fit the data better than a four-factor model combining supervisor and coworker social support into one factor ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 154.59, df = 5, p < .001).

Main Analyses

Latent growth model. For the main analyses, we first conducted a latent growth model using the manifest values of job satisfaction across measurement points. As data was collected at intervals of four, six, and again six weeks, we set the loadings of job satisfaction measurements at 0, 0.4, 1.0, and 1.6. The resulting latent growth model showed a good fit to

the data (χ^2 = 5.60, *df* = 5, *p* = .35, CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, RMSEA = .02, SRMR = .08). We estimated a model including a quadratic polynomial to test for a quadratic trajectory. The quadratic term was nonsignificant (-.032, *p* = .66). Further, the comparison of the Chi-square values for the LGM with the additional quadratic term (χ^2 = 2.67, *df* = 1, *p* = .10, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.93, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .03) was not superior to the model with only a linear slope (χ^2 = 2.99, *df* = 4, *p* = .56). We thus retained the simple linear slope model. This selected model with linear slope showed a significant intercept (6.27, *p* < .001) and slope (-0.30, *p* < .001). The negative slope is in line with previous findings of sample-average hangover patterns, with a gradual decrease of job satisfaction across time, and confirms our Hypothesis 1. Intercept and slope were not significantly correlated (*r* = .04, *p* = .47), indicating that over the whole sample, the trajectory of job satisfaction was unrelated to the initial level. The variance of the intercept and slope were both significant (intercept variance = .29, slope variance = .31, both *p* < .001). This indicates a significant level of interpersonal variation in both the levels and development of job satisfaction across time, which validates the following approach using growth mixture modelling.

Growth mixture model. The growth mixture model with two distinct trajectories was indicated by the adjusted-LMR test as a good solution. The AIC, BIC, and SABIC values continued decreasing until the solution with four trajectories. The BLRT values were continuously significant, indicating that more profiles may be included. However, the solution with three and four trajectories showed additional trajectories that were very similar to the first and second extracted trajectories—differing only slightly regarding the initial intercept but not the developmental pattern. An elbow (line) plot depicting the values of AIC, BIC, and SABIC reported in Table 2 showed an angle for the two-profile solution, suggesting that this is the most accurate solution (see Figure 1; Morin & Marsh, 2015). Also a spaghetti plot depicting study participants' job satisfaction across measurement intervals suggests that a 2-group solution is plausible (Figure 2). We thus selected this solution for further analysis, which when compared to solutions with more profiles provides parsimony and due to the larger group sizes further ensures acceptable power in subsequent analyses. Research has suggested that the restricted variance-covariance matrices that are often used as a default in mixture modelling techniques will often lead to a robust and proper estimation of the number of classes, but that the estimation of the size of the classes and the trajectories will be improved when using freed variance–covariance matrices (Diallo, Morin, & Lu, 2016; Morin et al., 2011). For this reason, we reran the two-profile solution, freeing the variance–covariance matrices, and used this solution as the final one. The first of the two groups included 117 (33%) participants and can be characterized by high initial levels of job satisfaction (intercept = 6.91, *p* < .001) that continued to be consistently high across time (slope = -.08, *p* = .69). We called this group the *high stable group*. The second group consisted of 240 (67%) participants who were characterized by high initial levels of job satisfaction (intercept = 6.01, *p* < .001), which decreased across time (slope = -.37, *p* < .001). We called this group the *hangover group*. As we did not find a group of individuals with increasing levels in job satisfaction across time, our Hypothesis 2 could only partly be supported. Figure 3 illustrates the observed means of the two job satisfaction trajectory groups across time.

Antecedent resources of different trajectories. To evaluate Hypotheses 3 to 6, we used the auxiliary command in MPlus and the BCH-procedure (Bakk & Vermunt, 2016) to test

whether the high stable satisfaction and the hangover group differed regarding perceived supervisor and coworker support, occupational self-efficacy, CSE, and perceived person–job fit (see Figure 4). The results showed that the participants in the hangover group experienced considerably lower levels of supervisor and coworker social support (supporting Hypotheses 3a and 3b), reported lower occupational self-efficacy (supporting Hypothesis 4), CSE (supporting Hypothesis 5), and person–job fit (supporting Hypothesis 6, all $p < .001$) compared to the high stable group in job satisfaction.

Discussion

We have studied different trajectories of job satisfaction in the first four months of work life among adolescent labour market entrants. Our aims where, first, to explore whether the hangover pattern of job satisfaction that was repeatedly found among adult job newcomers (e.g., Boswell et al., 2005; Boswell et al., 2009) can also be found among adolescent job newcomers without previous work experience. Second, we wanted to investigate if the hangover pattern is a general phenomenon or if different groups of individuals with distinct developmental patterns of job satisfaction exist. Our third aim was to examine a series of resources deduced from the job satisfaction model of social-cognitive career theory (Lent & Brown, 2006) to better understand the potential causes of different job satisfaction trajectories.

Supporting our hypotheses, the results showed an on-average decrease of job satisfaction over the first months of VET. Moreover, when exploring different groups with differing developmental patterns of job satisfaction, we saw that the hangover pattern did apply to the majority (i.e., around two thirds) of our sample. However, one third of our sample showed a trajectory of high and stable job satisfaction, suggesting that there are newcomers who do not experience a hangover effect. We moreover confirmed that adolescents in the trajectory with high and stable job satisfaction across time indicated higher perceptions of supervisor and coworker support, occupational self-efficacy, higher levels of CSE, and a higher perception of person–job fit when compared to individuals with a declining pattern of job satisfaction.

By showing an on-average decline in job satisfaction during the first months in VET, our study expands existing findings of a declining overall trend in job satisfaction among adult job newcomers (e.g., Boswell et al., 2009) to a sample of adolescent workers at the very start of their work life. This finding adds to the literature because it shows that previous work experience may not pose a necessary condition for the experience of a job satisfaction hangover. Indeed, our study suggests that it is not necessary to have had a previous job as a reference point to experience a hangover pattern. This is an informative finding, as the *dissatisfaction in a previous job* argument has been repeatedly brought forward as a prominent explanation for the job satisfaction hangover pattern (e.g., Boswell et al., 2009; Chadi & Hetschko, 2014; Dobrow, Ganzach, & Liu, 2016; Solinger et al., 2013). Our findings are in line with our assumption based on COR theory, that starting a new job generally represents a stressful situation that puts strain on existing resources, which can lead to a decrease in job satisfaction independent of prior work experience.

We are only aware of two other studies tracking the development of job satisfaction among young employees transitioning to a new job from an educational context, one with university graduates (Vandenberghe et al., 2011), and one with polytechnic school graduates (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009). Both studies showed a declining overall trend in job satisfaction

among their participants. A similar study with PhD graduates entering the labour market was presented by Solinger and colleagues (2013). However, these authors studied the development of newcomers' organizational commitment, not job satisfaction. Moreover, these three studies' participants were in their mid-twenties and can thus be expected to have had some sort of work experience and various knowledge about the world-of-work more generally when compared to much younger adolescents, such as the participants of our study. University graduates do further already have more specific training and quite precise ideas of what their job tasks may consist of prior to onboarding. Consequently, they should also have more well-defined expectations regarding their tasks and roles. The extent to which they experience their skills and knowledge as being used may be an important factor influencing their job satisfaction. The adolescent sample we study, on the other hand, lack a specific educational background and enter a much more structured program of vocational training in which they are carefully introduced to a profession. Due to their young age, they do further have little previous knowledge of the work environment. Consequently, they should have rather unspecific and unclear expectations as to what their specific tasks and roles may be. For this population, personal attitudes and traits, the social environment at work, opportunities to learn, and the organization of their introduction may be especially relevant factors contributing to their job satisfaction.

Declining Versus Stable Patterns of Job Satisfaction Across Time

The finding that our sample of adolescent job newcomers can be separated into a group with high stable job satisfaction and a group with high but declining job satisfaction is important because it shows that newcomers are not a homogeneous population, but may consist of different distinct subpopulations who experience their newcomer situation in different ways. This finding extends the previous variable-centred analyses of job satisfaction trajectories (e.g., Boswell et al., 2005) that show *on-average trajectories*, but that could not account for such distinct subgroups. Nevertheless, the declining pattern represented the majority in our sample, which suggests that, in line with previous research studying on-average trajectories, a hangover-effect is the prominent trend in job satisfaction development after starting a new job.

Interestingly, we could not find an increasing pattern of job satisfaction across time, even when looking at three- and four-trajectory growth mixture model solutions, instead of the finally chosen two-trajectory solution. This finding is opposed to research that found *learning to love* patterns of increasingly positive job attitudes across time, for example, as in the study by Solinger and colleagues (2013). However, that we could not confirm a pattern of increasing job satisfaction might also be due to the fact that in our sample, the level of job satisfaction was, on average, already very high in the beginning (cf., Table 1), thus making it unlikely that a sizable number of individuals would show an increase in subsequent measurement points. Researchers have proposed that young employees often have very high expectations when entering the world of work (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Possibly, adolescents who are obtaining their first experiences in the workforce might start off very enthusiastically and with positive expectations of their jobs, which make a further increase in job satisfaction unlikely. Moreover, Solinger and colleagues (2013) studied the development of organizational commitment across time, and not job satisfaction, as we did. Organizational commitment is theorized to arise with the passing of time, with individuals increasing their internalization and identification with their work roles after onboarding (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), whereas job

satisfaction may already be developed from the start (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017).

Apart from qualitatively different trajectories, we did not detect groups of individuals with similar trajectories that quantitatively differed in the general level of job satisfaction. This, too, may be explained by the observation that the level of job satisfaction in our sample was generally high. Indeed, adolescents who would have low initial job satisfaction because they did not like the offered apprenticeship would most likely not have accepted the apprenticeship and continued on to further schooling, as the Swiss educational system provides the option of a voluntary additional school year, and thus a chance to delay accessing the labour market until a year later.

Contingencies of the Hangover Effect

Overall, our findings regarding the positive relations between social support, occupational self-efficacy, CSE, and person–job fit, with a more positive development of job satisfaction, supports the ideas of social-cognitive theory (Lent & Brown, 2006) that job satisfaction is enhanced by a series of social and cognitive resources. Our research is thus an example of how theories from the field of vocational psychology may support an alternative point of view of organizational phenomena (and vice versa). The results are further in line with COR (Hobfoll et al., 2018) and socialization resources theories (Saks & Gruman, 2012, 2018), which propose that individuals with high initial levels of resources are likely to experience more positive socialization outcomes over time. Moreover, we found a very uniform pattern among the assessed resources, with all showing similar levels in the hangover and the high stable group. This is in line with the proposition that resources "travel in packs, or caravans" and are thus interrelated (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 106).

In sum, our results suggest that different social cognitive variables play an important role in determining whether an individual will experience a job satisfaction hangover or not. Confirming our assumption, adolescents that perceived higher levels of social support from their supervisors, as well as from their colleagues, were more likely to experience a high and stable trajectory of job satisfaction across time. This can be explained in the way that social support may facilitate the adolescents' impression that their work and person is valued by others, and that their supervisors and colleagues care about them. This perception should foster a better learning experience and a more convivial, socially interconnected work environment that increases job satisfaction. Whereas previous research has repeatedly confirmed a positive relation between social support at work and job satisfaction (e.g., Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016; Simon, Judge, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2010), few studies have examined the relation between social support and the development of job satisfaction over time (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009). Our study contributes to this literature by showing that social support is meaningfully related to different job satisfaction trajectories in a sample of very young entrants into the workforce. In addition, our results extend previous findings, which suggested that being socially connected is of high importance for adolescents in VET (Nägele & Neuenschwander, 2014).

Our finding that occupational self-efficacy predicts the trajectory of job satisfaction further supports the importance of this social cognitive variable in explaining job attitudes. Given that our participants had only just started their work life when they were first assessed, our results imply that occupational self-efficacy can be validly assessed and used as a predictor

of subsequent job satisfaction, even when individuals did not yet accumulate a lot of work experience. This opens possibilities for counselling interventions with adolescents based on their self-efficacy beliefs even before they start to work.

Further, our findings also showed that adolescents in the group of high and stable job satisfaction reported higher levels of CSE. This is in line with the proposition that personality can be an important resource for job satisfaction. Judge and colleagues (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998), for example, argued that individuals with high CSE experience higher job satisfaction because they have more positive appraisals of the work environment and of specific job characteristics (e.g., perceiving one's tasks as more significant), which enhances the experience of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998). Beyond the concurrent relationship between personality and job satisfaction, the relationship we found between CSE and the development of job satisfaction across time is in line with previous research reporting a positive relationship of CSE with the subsequent development of career success variables (including job satisfaction; Judge & Hurst, 2008; Wu & Griffin, 2012). Our finding confirms that also for adolescent job newcomers, personality does not only have a concurrent relationship with job satisfaction, but it also represents a resource that facilitates the continuous experience of job satisfaction. As such, our results are unique in that they suggest that CSE is important to the understanding of why newcomers might differ in their job satisfaction trajectories during the first months at work.

Finally, we found that adolescents with higher person–job fit perceptions were more likely to have consistently high levels of job satisfaction. As previous research has established, a high person–job fit indicates to the individual that a job is able to satisfy one's needs, which makes it an important antecedent of job satisfaction (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Oh et al., 2014). Our study extends this literature by showing that not only is person–job fit positively related to existing levels of job satisfaction, but that experienced person–job fit upon job entry seems to be important for preventing the subsequent occurrence of a job satisfaction hangover pattern among job newcomers.

Limitations and Future Research

Our study has some limitations. The hangover effect that we found in our study participants without previous work experience shows that previous work experience is not a necessary condition for experiencing a job satisfaction hangover. This does not mean, however, that changing from one job to another would not further increase the hangover. Future research may thus explicitly compare the hangover of work life entrants with the hangover experienced by job newcomers who have changed from one job to another. In addition, it is possible that besides having no previous work experience, the fact that our sample was comparatively young might explain the job satisfaction patterns. However, to test this assumption, research would need to contrast our findings to those obtained among older individuals without any work experience—a sample most likely very difficult to acquire.

Despite the fact that our study could replicate an overall declining trend in job satisfaction, as found in previous studies among adult job newcomers, our findings on the two distinct trajectories of job satisfaction might not generalize to adult job newcomers. Although our study participants took part in a structured VET program, adult job newcomers might have more extensive and differentiated personal and professional experiences, and a more varied bandwidth of job situations compared to our study participants. Adult newcomers could thus

show a different number and shape of job satisfaction trajectories across time. However, to our knowledge, there is no published research that has studied the development of job satisfaction in adults after transitioning from one job to another using a person-centred approach. Future research should thus apply growth mixture modelling to the development of job satisfaction in adult job newcomers, and in a further step, compare whether the trajectories of adolescent work-life newcomers and adult job newcomers differ regarding their initial satisfaction, rates of change, and form of development.

We based the selection of resources as antecedents of job satisfaction trajectories on the social-cognitive framework (Lent & Brown, 2006). By focusing on personal, contextual, and person-context interaction resources, our approach is in line with an agentic, and interactionist view of newcomer socialization (Gruman et al., 2006). On the other hand, we did not study institutionalized socialization efforts by the organizations that are the common focus in traditional accounts of the socialization framework (e.g.; Saks & Ashforth 1997b), and the more recent socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012, 2018). Our research thus may underestimate the role of the organization, its efforts for facilitating a successful entry into work life, and its influence on the development of job satisfaction. Moreover, even given that we studied variables that refer to the interaction of the individual with his/her environment (i.e., perceived social support, person-job fit), we did not apply an interactionist perspective in a stricter sense by assessing interaction effects between socialization efforts stemming from the organization and the individual.

In this study, we drew from socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012, 2018). This framework proposes a chronological sequence suggesting that specific resources would be of special relevance for distinct phases of newcomer socialization. However, we assessed the resources only at one time, and were thus unable to assess specific relations to job satisfaction at a given phase - nor could we investigate the change of resources over time, as suggested by a resource accumulation/depletion view (Hobfoll et al., 2018). We did further not explore the potential interplay of the resources as suggested by Lent and Brown (2006). Future research could further assess these issues.

We should also note that although we relied on the SCCT framework (Lent & Brown, 2006), we did not consider the mediating mechanism of *goal-directed behaviour* proposed in that model. Future research could thus explore the role of goal-directed behaviour for the development of job satisfaction trajectories. Moreover, although we selected salient, theoretically well-founded variables as an operationalization of the SCCT variables, alternative or additional resources might be relevant. For example, emotional stability or conscientiousness could be examined in addition to CSE as potentially important personality factors.

Finally, there are alternative explanations for a job satisfaction hangover in the literature that our study did not assess. One of them assumes an overly positive self-presentation of employers when hiring new employees, which leads to disappointment when confronted with job realities (Van Maanen, 1975). Another assumes an initial dissonance-reduction mechanism among newcomers, and the adoption of a more realistic job view over time (Vroom & Deci, 1971). As is the case in the majority of previous job satisfaction hangover research, we did not assess variables directly related to these two explanations. Future research could thus make an effort to evaluate alternative explanations for the hangover more directly.

Implications for Practice and Conclusions

The herein reported research has implications that may facilitate successful newcomer socialization in organizations, and in more general terms, also on young employees' *work life socialization*. Specifically, our results suggest that it is important for organizations to foster a supportive social environment (supervisors, coworkers, and the organization in general) to reap the advantages of continuously high job satisfaction, and to promote a positive start into work life. In addition, assessing occupational self-efficacy and personality (CSE), and carefully evaluating the fit of an individual to a specific job are further possible strategies for making a job satisfaction hangover less likely. More generally, the more resources a newcomer is able to capitalize on, the more successfully his or her socialization may progress.

To conclude, our research shows that the hangover effect after starting a new job does not depend on the contrast of a new job with previous, dissatisfying job experiences. Adolescent employees without significant labour market experience generally show a pattern of declining job satisfaction after job entry. However, this pattern of decline is not inevitable because a minority exhibits constantly high satisfaction. Accordingly, there may be means for keeping employees satisfied across the first months in a new job, and thereby harvesting organizational benefits and providing a successful start into working life.

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Table 1

Mean Values, Standard Values, Cronbach's Alpha Values, and Intercorrelations of the Study Variables

		M	*SD*	*α*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Job satisfaction T1	6.27	0.67	.81	-							
2	Job satisfaction T2	6.11	0.87	.87	.55	-						
3	Job satisfaction T3	6.05	0.98	.86	.46	.61	-					
4	Job satisfaction T4	5.76	1.25	.89	.41	.54	.70	-				
5	Perceived supervisor support	4.31	0.62	.81	.44	.57	.59	.52	-			
6	Perceived coworker support	4.13	0.41	.88	.46	.56	.44	.42	.66	-		
7	Occupational self-efficacy	4.54	0.58	.77	.32	.25	.13	.02	.15	.17	-	
8	Person-job fit	4.01	0.52	.89	.48	.35	.32	.25	.31	.35	.32	-
9	Core self-evaluations	3.85	0.54	.83	.34	.44	.31	.26	.42	.43	.39	.38

Note. $N = 357$. Missing values in T2, T3, and T4 have been estimated with FIML. Job satisfaction was rated on a scale from 1 to 7, occupational self-efficacy on a scale from 1 to 6, all other constructs from 1 to 5. All correlation coefficients are significant on the $p < .001$-level.

Table 2

Fit Indices for the Compared Growth Mixture Models

Model	*AIC*	*BIC*	*SABIC*	*L-L*	*Δ parameter*	*BLRT p-value*	*Adj. LMR p*	*Entropy*
1a group	2172.79	2207.69	2179.14	-	-	-	-	-
2a groups	2113.25	2159.78	2121.78	-1102.193	3	.000	.009	.801
3a groups	2095.24	2153.24	2105.42	-1070.481	3	.000	.156	.734
4a groups	2068.73	2138.52	2081.42	-1016.363	3	.000	.095	.919
2b	2045.58	2092.11	2054.04	-1010.790	-	.000	.261	.754

Note. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion, BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion, SABIC = Sample Adjusted Bayesian Information Criterion, L-L = Log-likelihood value, Δ parameter = Difference in the number of parameters, BLRT p-value = p-value for the bootstrap likelihood ratio test, Adj. LMR p = p-value for the adjusted Lo-Mendel-Rubin likelihood ratio test. We used 150 bootstrap samples to assess the significance of the BLRT. Subscript a denotes the models with fixed variance-covariance matrices across profiles, 2b denotes the final solution with freed variance-covariance matrices.

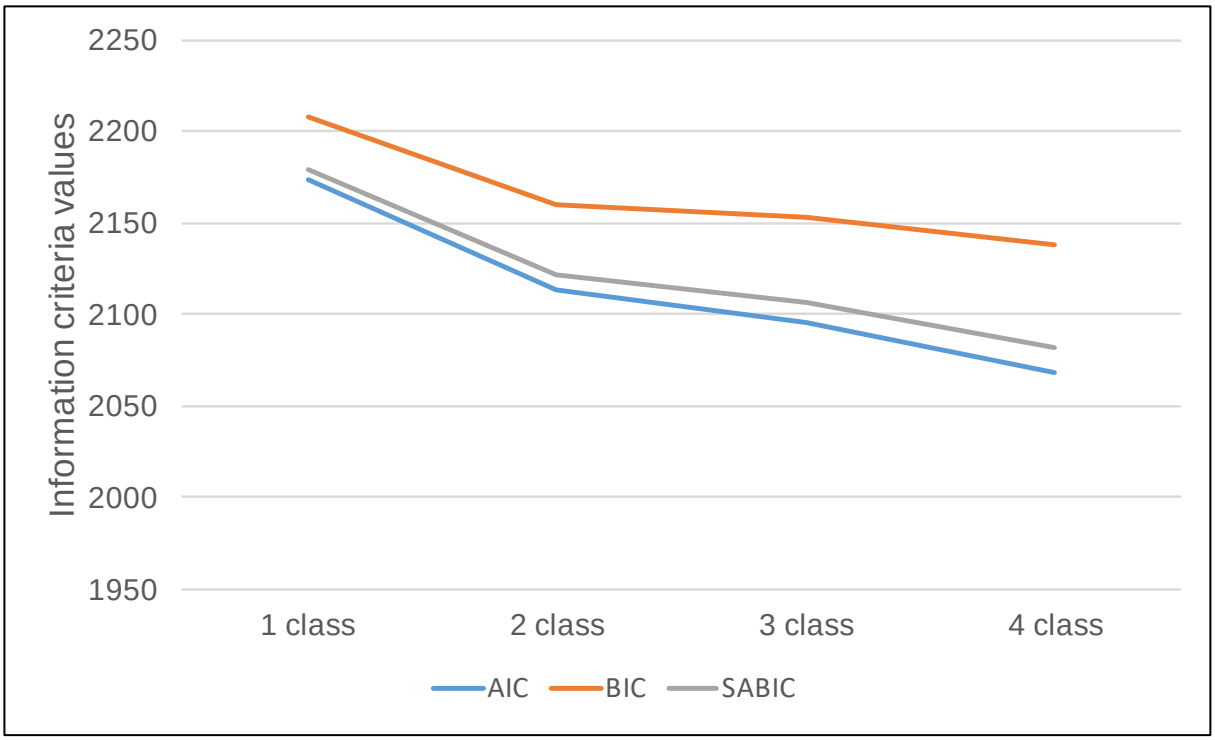

Figure 1. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion, BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion, SABIC = Sample Adjusted Bayesian Information Criterion. Elbow plot for 1 to 4 growth mixture modelling trajectory solutions.

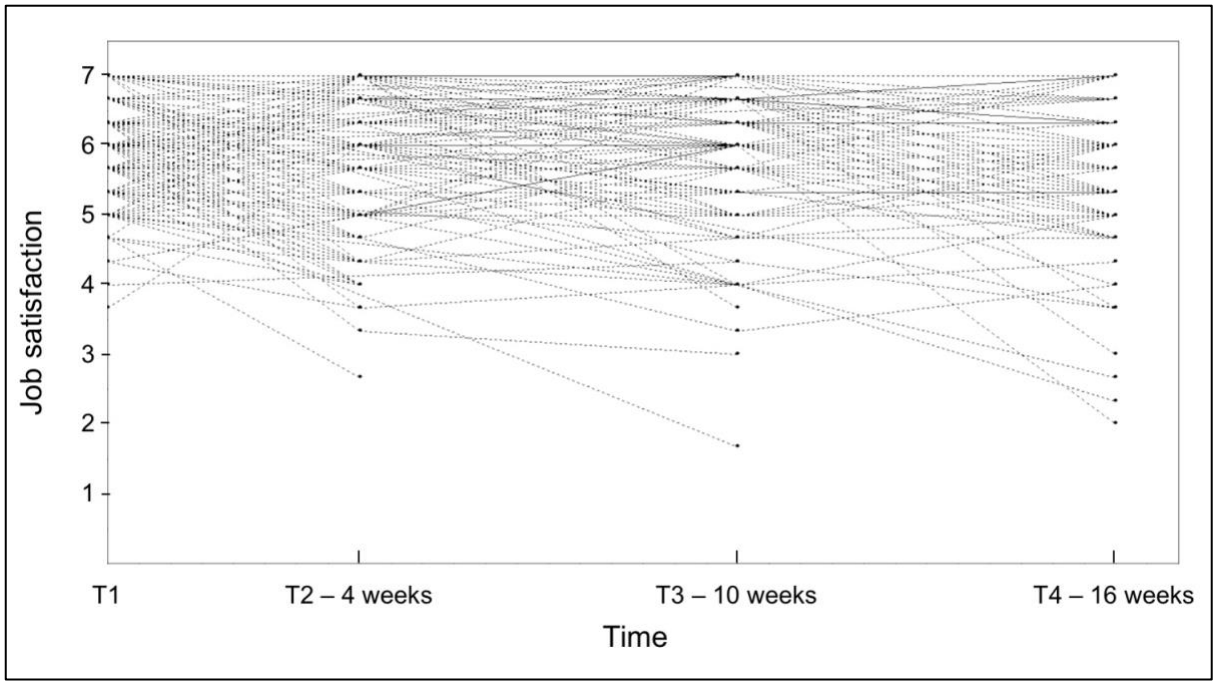

Figure 2. Spaghetti plot visualizing job satisfaction ratings for participants at each measurement time.

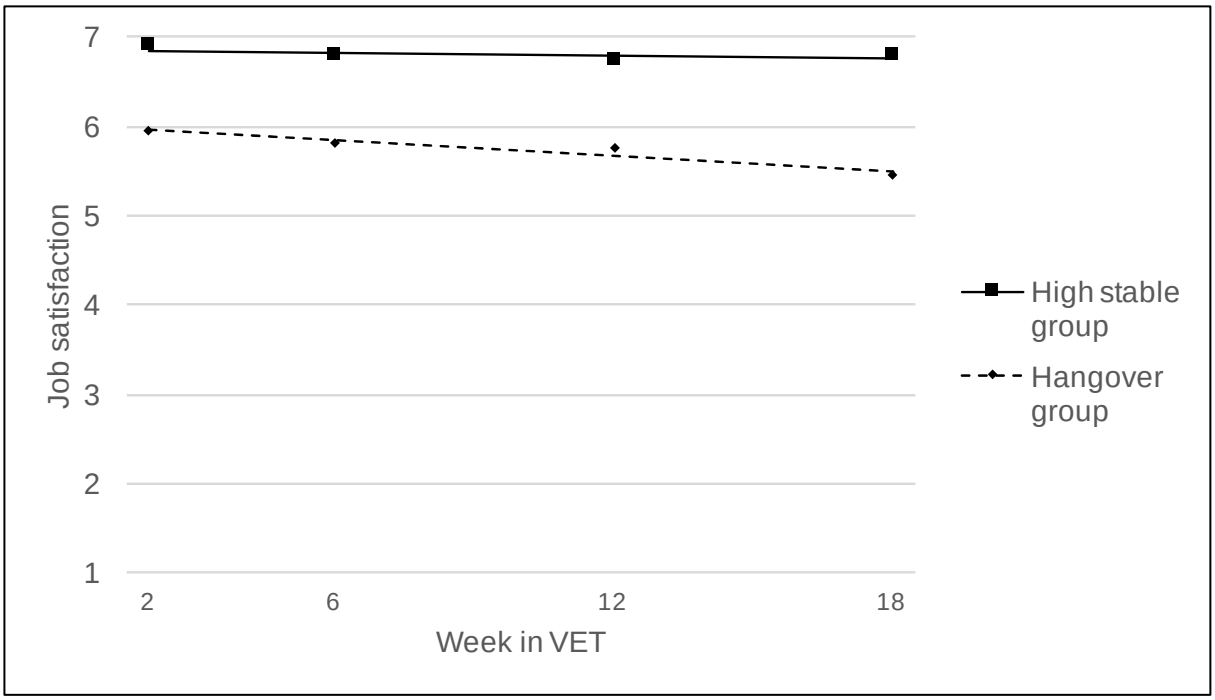

Figure 3. Observed means of job satisfaction for the stable and the hangover job satisfaction trajectories groups. VET = Vocational Education and Training.

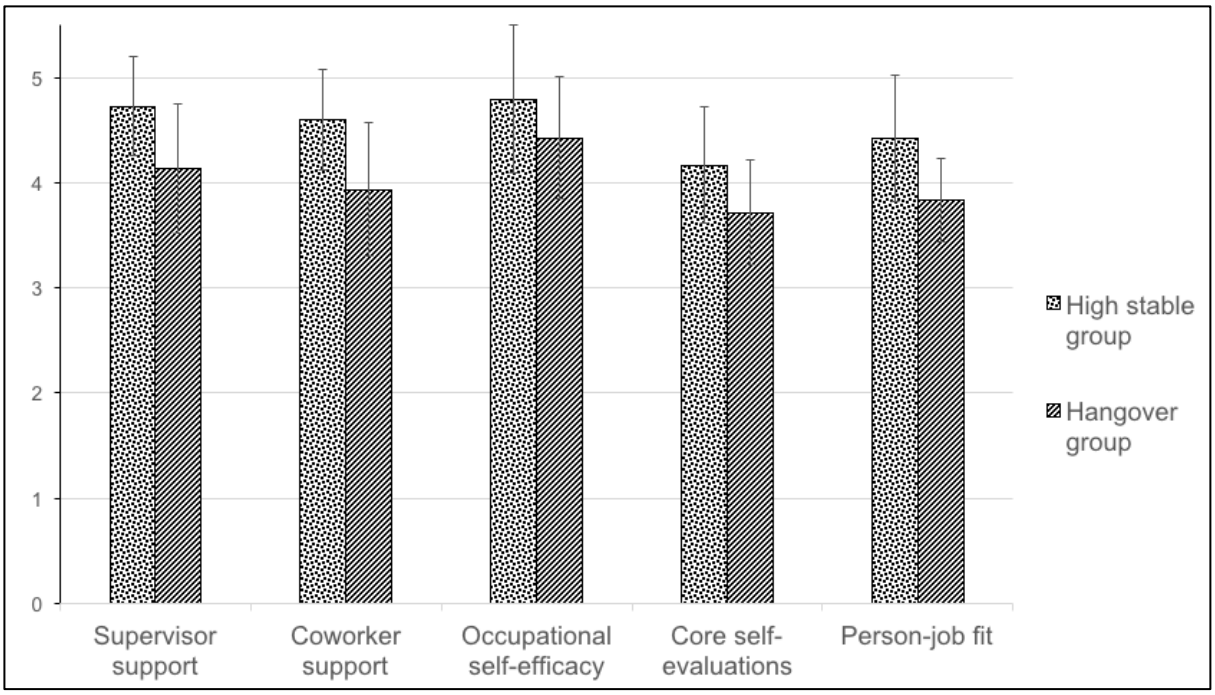

Figure 4. Mean values and standard deviations in available resources across the high stable and hangover job satisfaction trajectory groups. Supervisor and coworker support and core self-evaluations were assessed at T2; Occupational self-efficacy and person-job fit were assessed at T1. All comparisons of the high stable and the hangover group were significant at the $p < .001$ level using Wald tests and the BCH procedure in MPlus.